THE

## ACADEMY VOCALIST;

OR, VOCAL MUSIC ARRANGED FOR THE USE OF

SEMINARIES, HIGH SCHOOLS, SINGING CLASSES, ETC.,

BY GEORGE F. ROOT,

PROFESSOR OF MUNIC IN ABBOTT'S COLLEGIATE INSTITUTION, SPINGLER INSTITUTE; THE RUTGERS INSTITUTE; THE NEW YORK INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND, ETC.

INCLUDING A COMPLETE COURSE OF

ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION, VOCAL EXERCISES AND SOLFEGGIOS,
BY LOWELL MASON.



NEW YORK:
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I have placed the Base Clef on the lower staff in this book, for convenience in playing, and that its use may be more extended. It will be found that ladies can sing from this clef (an octave higher, of course, than the actual tone) without difficulty. Should any object to this arrangement, I would remind them of the constant use of the Treble clef for Tenor voices.

I have written a few Solos for high Soprano voices, and it is particularly recommended that they be attempted by no others, as nothing is more injurious to the voice than forcing it above its natural compass.

An agreeable effect will be produced in such pieces as "Beautiful Star," "Neva Boatman's Song," &c., by having the single parts sung by chorus and the trio by three well balanced voices; but this, and many other plans for producing a pleasant variety, will suggest themselves to the teacher or leader.

New York, Feb., 1852.

Entered, according to Act of Congress, in the year 1852,

By MASON & LAW,

in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the United States, for the Scuthern District of New York.

#### ELEMENTS OF VOCAL MUSIC.

#### PREFATORY REMARKS.

The following exposition of the "Elements of Vocal Music," has been prepared not with reference to names, signs, or characters merely, but having also constantly and primarily in view the substance, essence, or nature of that which is to be taught. This will be observed in the propositions or axioms throughout the work. Every good teacher will endeavor to convey to the minds of his pupils, in the first place, a knowledge of things, doctrines, or facts, and afterwards, as a natural consequent, a knowledge of signs, symbols, or characters. The inversion of this order is one of the principal causes of the difficulties attending the learning of music, and of the obscurity that so often accompanies the well-meant artempts of the teacher at explanation. It is so directly at variance with the true philosophy or science of teaching that it is to be rejected by every enlightened teacher in every department of instruction, or whatever may be the subject of his lesson. Music, the perception of which can come through the sense of hearing only, can never be taught by signs or by characters which are addressed to the eye. With as much hope of success might one attempt to teach chiaroscuro by verbal explanations or description, as the nature or relations of musical sounds by an exhibition of anything to the organs of vision. It is perhaps mostly to a misapprehension of this subject that we are to attribute the many new systems of notation which have appeared within a few years past; an attempt has been made to invert the order of nature in teaching music, and to communicate instruction through the eye, on the supposition that if the signs and characters are explained the things signified will be understood. Such unphilosophic attempts at teaching have of course been met by insurmountable difficulties, and these difficulties instead of being attributed to their true cause, have been supposed to arise out of a defective or obscure notation; and hence, new systems of notation (so called) have been invented. But how is it possible that one can be made to understand in any practicable manner the signs or symbols of things, when as yet he has not become acquainted with the things signified or symbolized? Let music be taught first, and musical signs will follow easily enough afterwards. Let the teacher draw out and quicken the musical perceptions of his pupils, let him form in the ear a true idea of the scale, and let him train the vocal organs to

the truthful production of that scale, and there will then be no great difficulty in teaching the notation by which it shall be represented. Notation consists mostly in the representation of musical sounds by means of arbitrary written characters, one arbitrary character being made, provided it be simple and easily strike the eye, is as good as another. We see then the folly and ignorance of those who would attempt to render the learning or the teaching of music easier by adopting some new system of notation. Not more absurd would be the attempt to relieve the difficulty of teaching colors to the blind, by means of a new nomenclature, than is that of rendering easier the teaching or the learning of music by a new system of notation.

It is taken for granted in the following synopsis that the teacher is familiar with his work, or that he knows how to teach; pedagogic directions have therefore been mostly omitted; not even the questions common in such elementary works have been inserted, on the supposition that the man who is qualified to teach will be able to ask his own questions. The practical exercises too, must be regarded as specimens; for as the good teacher of arithmetic does not rely exclusively upon his text book, but often gives out original or extemporaneous questions, growing out of the immediate circumstances by which he is surrounded, so the good music teacher will write lessons impromptu upon the board whenever he meets his class. There is a freshness and lively interest in such lessons that cannot be reached by the most carefully prepared book-exercises. But while the manner of teaching has been supposed to be the teacher's own, the things to be taught are here stated or defined, so that this work is properly a text book for the teacher. The definitions, so often defective or false, and the technical terms, so often misapplied, in treatises of this kind, have received close attention, and it is believed, may be relied upon as accurate. The order of arrangement of topics, both in respect to analysis and synthesis, is in general such as would naturally be suggested by a careful inductive investigation of the subject. While, therefore, it is specially adapted to the inductive method of teaching, it will also be found to meet the wants of those who think best to adopt the declarative or preceptive, in preference to, or in connection with the inductive method. Indeed we think that every good teacher of an adult singing class will avail himself of both the inductive and preceptive forms of giving instruction, adapting himself to the various circumstances in which he may be placed.

#### INTRODUCTORY.

ANALYSIS OF MUSICAL SOUNDS.

- 1. Distinctions existing in the nature of Musical Sounds.—A musical sound, or a Tone, may be,
  - 1. Long, or Short.
  - 2. High, or Low.
  - 3. Soft, or Loud.
  - 2. Properties of Tones.—A tone has, therefore, three essential properties:
    - 1. LENGTH.
    - 2. Рітси.
    - 3. Power.
- 3. Departments in the Elements of Music.—As there are three distinctions existing in the nature of musical sounds, and as they have three essential properties, so there are three corresponding departments in the elements of Music:
  - 1. RHYTHMICS,....treating of the length of tones.
  - 2. Melodics,....treating of the pitch of tones.
  - 3. Dynamics,....treating of the power of tones.
  - 4. General View: -

Distinctions.
LONG OF SHORT.
HIGH, OF LOW.

3. Soft, or Loud.

Properties.
LENGTH.
PITCH.
POWER.

Departments.
RHYTHMICS.
MELODICS.
DYNAMICS.

### RHYTHMICS.\* CHAPTER I.

DIVISIONS OF TIME. MEASURES, PARTS OF MEASURES, COUNTING AND BEATING TIME. ACCENT.

§ 1. The length of tones is mentioned by a division of time, into equal portions. This may be indicated or illustrated, by counting equally, thus: one, two; one, two; one, two; one, two; one, two; or thus: la, la; la, la; la, la; la, la

- § 2. The portions into which time is divided are called Measures; thus at §1, four measures are supposed to be counted.
- § 3. Measures are divided into smaller portions, called Parts or Measures, thus, at §1, measures are supposed to be divided into two parts, the first part of each measure being indicated by one, and the second part by two.
- § 4. Measures and parts of measures, may be indicated not only by counting (to the ear), but also by motions of the hand (to the eye), called Beats or Beating the Time.
- § 5. In beating the time, a downward motion of the hand is usually made for the first part of a measure, and an upward motion for the second part.
- § 6. The first part of a measure should be accented, the second unaccented.

Note 1.—When the pupils commence learning to beat the time, it is well for them, not only to make the proper motions of the hand, but also to repeat the words downward beat, upward beat, or down, up, as descriptive of the beats.

Note 2.—It should be thoroughly and practically understood, that this division of time is the Rhythmic Element; the principle of measurement in all music. The portions of time called measures are to music, what the portions of time called days, months and years are to history.

Note 3.—The letter a in la should receive its grave sound (ä); being the same sound as is heard in the words Fäther, Cälm, Bälm, Bär, Fär, Pä, Mä. This vowel sound (ah.) is the best for vocal practice, and is constantly used by all those who well understand the training of the voice.

#### CHAPTER II.

NOTES. BARS. RESTS.

- § 7. The length of tones is represented by written characters, called Notes. Notes are signs, representing to the eye the comparative length or duration of sounds.
- § 8. Perpendicular marks are used for marking the division of measures called Bars.
- \*The departments are kept separate in this elementary treatise, not because they should be thus kept in teaching, but because being thus separated they present a clearer general view of the subject, and also because it is quite impossible to present the different topics in such an order as will be suited alike to different classes. The subject of Rhythmies is here presented first; in teaching a class, however, it may be just as well to commence with Melodics; but with which ever department the work of teaching is commenced, it is certain that at least the two departments of Bhythmies and Melodics should be almost immediately united; indeed the three departments should proceed simultaneously (or nearly so from the beginning, and through the whole course of instruction

§ 9. A measure, or part of a measure may be passed over in silence; such silence is called resting; and the sign or character by which it is indicated is called a REST.

Illustration of measures; example of notes, bars and rests.



#### CHAPTER III.

ENYTHMIC CLASSIFICATION. PROLONGED TONES. PRIMITIVE AND DERIVED FORMS OF MEASURE. LONG NOTES AND RESTS.

- § 10. A sound may be prolonged so as to occupy both parts of a measure, and thus a different form of measure may be obtained.
- § 11. The first form of measure, (a separate sound, or rest, being appropriated to each of its parts,) is called PRIMITIVE FORM.
- § 12. The second form of measure, (both parts being appropriated to one prolonged sound, or rest,) is called Derived Form.
  - § 13. Derived forms are obtained from primitive forms, by uniting the parts.
- § 14. The prolonged sound is represented by a note differing in form from that which was previously introduced, and which has also its corresponding rest.

Note.—The notes and rests may now be called short notes or long notes, and short rests or long rests.

Primitive. Primitive. Derived. Derived. Short notes. Short rests. Long note. Long rest.

#### CHAPTER IV.

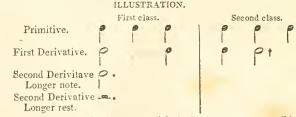
#### TRIPLE MEASURE.

- § 15. A measure may have three parts; as one, two, three; one, two, three; or downward beat, hither (or inward) beat, upward beat.
- i 16. A measure having three parts, is called TRIPLE MEASURE; a measure naving two parts, is called Double Measure.

- § 17. Triple measure receives an accent on the first part.
- § 18. A sound may be prolonged so as to occupy two or three parts of a measure; and thus derived forms are obtained in triple measure.
- § 19. When the derived form is obtained by the union of the first and second parts of a measure, it is called the First Derivative; when it is obtained by the union of the first, second and third parts it is called the Second Derivative.
- § 20. When, in a derived form of measure, the union of the parts commences with the first, the derivative is said to be in the First Class; when the union commences with the second part of the measure, the derivative is said to be in the Second Class.
- § 21. When a tone commences on an unaccented, and is continued on an accented part of a measure, it is called a syncope, \* or syncopated tone.
  - § 22. A syncopated tone should always receive an accent.
- § 23. The longer sound, occupying three parts of a measure, is represented by a note of different form from the two previously introduced, which may now be called the longer note.

Note .- A syncope changes, or "cuts into" the regular accent.

§ 24. Figures are used as signs of measure; thus, the figure 2 denotes double, and the figure 3, triple measure.



Note.—The principle of induction never anticipates by names or terms anything which has not already been discovered or taught. In investigation this anticipation is impossible, in teaching it is inadmissible. Hence the pupils use such names or terms a most naturally come up in the mind, and if on further progress other names or terms become more convenient, they may then make the change. Again, induction never burdens the mind with names or technical terms, until they are needed as aids in bringing up to the imagination the idea of things which are already known.

<sup>\*</sup> Syncope.-From two Greek words, signifying "1 cut." † Representation of a Syncope

#### CHAPTER V.

#### QUADRUPLE MEASURE.

- § 25 A measure may have four parts; as one. two, three four; one, two, three, four; or downward b at, hither (or inward) beat, thither (or outward) beat, upward beat. Called QUADRUPLE MEASURE, and distinguished by the figure 4.
- § 26. When, in a derived form of measure, the union commences with the third part, it is said to be in the THERD CLASS.
- § 27. When a sound is prolonged so as to occupy four parts of a measure it is represented by a note differing in form from those which have been previously introduced, and which we may call the longest note.

Note.—The reason why the commonly received names of the notes have not before been given is explained in the note at the end of the last chapter; they may now be adopted, as follows:—

| Note, Whole Note, or Semibreve,               | Notes. Rests. |  |
|---|---------------|--|
| Three-quarter Note, or Dotted Half, or Minim, | р             |  |
| Half Note, or Minim,                          | p             |  |
| Quarter Note, or Crotchet,                    | . • •         |  |
| ILLUSTRATION.                                 |               |  |
| Primitive, First Class. Second Class          | Third Class   |  |
| First Derivative,                             | 000           |  |
| Second Derivative,                            | PPt           |  |
| Third Derivative,                             |               |  |
| • Syncope.                                    | ed.           |  |

#### CHAPTER VI.

#### SEXTUPLE AND MIXED MEASURES.

- § 28. A measure having six parts, is called sextuple measure; as one, two, three, four, five, six; or downward beat, downward beat, hither beat, whither beat, upward beat, upward beat.
- § 29. A measure having six parts, is often described by two countings or beats, as is double measure; but it differs from double measure, since the latter consists of two twos, while the former consists of two threes. It is often called Compound Measure.
- § 30. Measures may also have nine, or twelve parts, or more or less. But it is not supposed to be necessary, in this place, to give any further explanation or illustration, since, if the pupil is well grounded in the kinds already mentioned he need not apprehend difficulty in any other forms of measure which may be found.

#### CHAPTER VII.

DIVIDED PARTS, OR COMPOUND FORMS OF MEASURE, AND THEIR CORRESPONDING NOTES AND RESTS.

- § 31. The parts of a measure may be divided, so that two sounds shall be made to occupy but one part.
- § 32. When two sounds occur on a single part of a measure, the measure is said to be in Compound Form.
  - § 33. Compound forms of measure, may be either primitive or derived.
- § 34. The notes representing these shorter sounds, or Compound Primitive forms of measure, are called Eighths, or Quavers.

#### HLUSTRATION.

Note 1.—The forms of measure heretofore explained, may now be called Simply For

Note 1.—The forms of measure heretofore explained, may now be called Simple Forms; and thus be distinguished from Compound Forms.

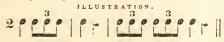
Note 2.—The principle of derivation and classification, as heretofore explained (derived from Kübler, a truly philosophical writer upon elementry inductive teaching) can now be carried out in compound forms of measure, if the teacher thinks it best. If it be thoroughly and practically understood, it affords a certain criterion or principle, by which the musical

performer may be carried through the most difficult rhythmic combinations with certainty, no principle is simply this: The primitive form of a measure, or the primitive note of a measure, or part of a measure, is always to be taken as the standard of measurement. This cannot fail to solve any rhythmic difficulty that can occur. The common mode of measuring sounds by beating, is unsatisfactory and uncertain. Hence, a good conductor of an orchestra is frequently observed to indicate with his Baton the primitive form of the measure, and this although he may know nothing of this principle of classification. This fact shows that the principle is a natural one, and one that fails not to accomplish its end. Whether the terms here used be adopted or not, the principle must be practically understood, the thing itself must be known, or there can be no certainty of correct time.

#### CHAPTER VIII.

#### TRIPLETS.

§ 35. A part of a measure may be so divided as to be occupied by three sounds. Such divisions of parts of measure are called Triplets. The notes representing triplets are marked by the figure 3.



#### CHAPTER IX.

COMPLEX FORMS OF MEASURE. AND THEIR CORRESPONDING NOTES AND RESTS.

§ 36. A part of a measure may be occupied by four sounds; such sounds are represented by notes called Sixteenths or Semiguavers.

§ 37. When four sounds occupy a single part of a measure, the measure is said to be in Complex Form.

ILLUSTRATION.

Note.—A further explanation of Rhythmic Classification may be obtained from "The Boston Academy's Manual of Instruction."

See note 2, at § 34.

#### CHAPTER X.

#### VARIETIES OF MEASURE.

§ 38. Either of the different kinds of notes may be taken to represent the primitive form of measure, simple and compound. Thus, the primitive form in

any kind of measure may be represented, by Whole Notes, Halves, Quarters Eighths, or Sixteenths.

§ 39. The different representation or signs of measure, arising from the use of the different notes as primitive forms, are called VARIETIES OF MEASURE.

Nore.—Varieties of measure merely furnish different signs for the same thing. To the ear they are all the same, to the eye only do they differ; the movement or degree of quickness depending not in the least on the kind of notes in which music is written. Notes represent no positive, but only a relative length of sound. The different varieties are comparatively unimportant, but are in common use.

- § 40. There may be as many varieties in all the different kinds of measure, as there are kinds of notes.
- § 41. As figures are used to distinguish the kinds of measure, so also they are used to distinguish the varieties of measure. When used for both purposes, the two figures are written in the form of fractions, the number of parts, (on which the kind of mvasure depends,) being indicated by the Numerator; and the kind of note used on each part, (on which the variety of measure depends,) being indicated by the Denominator.
  - § 42. EXAMPLE OF DIFFERENT VARIETIES OF MEASURE.

| $\frac{2}{1}$ o o | *3000         | $\frac{4}{1}$ 0 0 0 0   |
|-------------------|---------------|---|
| $\frac{2}{2}$     | $\frac{3}{2}$ | $\frac{4}{2}$ |
| $\frac{2}{4}$     | $\frac{3}{4}$ | 40000   |
| *8 ,              | 3000          | *40000  |
| * 16 ; ;          | * 16 2 2      | *40000  |

\*Seldom used. END OF RHYTHMICS.

#### MELODICS.

#### CHAPTER XI.

- § 43. Musical sounds, considered or treated with reference to relative pitch, are arranged in a certain order, or series, called The Scale.\*
- § 44. The scale consists of eight tones; these are named numerically from the lowest, upward: One, Two, Three, Four, Five, Six, Seven, Eight.
- § 45. Musical sounds may also be considered or treated abstractly, or with reference to absolute pitch. When thus considered they are named alphabetically from the letters, A, B, C, D, E, F, G.

Note.—In all nations where the generally prevalent system of music is received, the pitch of tones, as represented by letters, is the same.

§ 46. In treating of the scale, the tone C, is first taken (i. e. in the first steps of musical teaching) as one, or as the basis of the scale; so that the order of the scale is as follows:

One, Two, Three, Four, Five, Six, Seven, Eight. C, D, E, F, G, A, B, C.

§ 47. In vocal music, the following syllables are often used, in connection with the scale, or relative pitch.

Written,.....Do, Re, Mi, Fa, Sol, La, Si, Do. Pronounced,....Dō, Rā, Mē, Fä, Sōl, Lä, Sē, Dō.

Note 1 .- See previous note on the true sound of the vowel a.

Note 2.— The teacher is advised always to accustom his pupils to speak of the tones of the scale by their numerical, or relative names, as one, two three, &c.: thus, if a lesson be written on the board, and the teacher wishing to question the scholars with respect to the tones, asks, pointing to any particular note, "What tone is represented by that note?" the answer should be, one, two, three, or as the case may be. But if he wishes to question with respect to the letters, he should ask directly, "What letter is one, two, &c., or what is the pitch of one, two, &c.? He is advised also, not to allow his pupils to substitute, as names for tones, first, for one, second for two, &c.; nor to allow them to say No. 1, No. 2, &c., but simply one, two, three, four, &c. He is surther advised not to allow the pupils to regard the syllables as the names of the sounds; never to allow them to speak of the tone Do, the tone Re, &c.; hut, in all cases, to consider the names of the sounds of the scale one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, and eight.

Note 3.—Although the syllables are not regarded as indispensable, the following reasons may be assigned for their use: 1. An association is quickly formed between each particular syllable, and the relative pitch of the tone to which it is applied; and this enables the inexperienced singer to strike the pitch with comparative case. 2d. The proper practice of the syllables lays the foundation for a good articulation, or a correct delivery of words.

It is obvious that, if the syllables are used for the first reason above mentioned, they should always be applied to the scale in the same manner; i.e., Do to ome, Re to two, &c.; awee they are intended to indicate relative, and not absolute pitch. The Italian or French method of using the syllables instead of letters, or to represent absolute pitch, is perhaps as good as any; but if the syllables are thus used, Do being synonymons with C. Re with D. &c., there can be no use for the letters, as we need but one method of designating absolute pitch. It must be evident also, to any one, that in this use of the syllables no such advantage can be derived from them as is mentioned above. The only advantage that is claimed by those who would make the syllables synonymous with the letters is, that In this way, it is easier for the pupil to apply the syllables to the notes, since each syllable will always occupy the same place on the staff. The question then is, "are the advantages of associating the syllable with the sounds of the scale, greater than the difficulty of applying them?" If the answer is in the affirmative, then the use of the syllables here recommended is the hest use of them; if in the negative, the syllables had better be given up astogether and the German method of using only the one syllable La for all the tones be adopted.

#### CHAPTER XII.

#### THE STAFF AND CLEFS.

- $\S$  48. The scale (or the relative pitch of tones) is represented by notes in connection with a character called The Staff.
- § 49. The staff consists of five horizontal marks or lines, and the spaces between them.

Note.—Five is adopted for the number of lines, as a matter of convenience, but not of necessity.

- § 50. Each line and each space is called a Degree; thus, there are in the staff, nine degrees, five lines and four spaces.
  - § 51. The degrees of the staff are counted upwards, from the lowest.
- § 52. If it be desirable to extend the compass of the staff, spaces and lines, below or above, are used, called Spaces Below, or Spaces Above, and Added Lines Below, or Added Lines Above.
- § 53. The scale may be represented on the staff in various ways; thus, the note representing one may be placed upon the first line or first space, second line or second space, or upon any degree of the staff; but when the position of one is fixed, the other sounds must follow in regular succession.
- § 54. There are two ways in which it is common to represent the scale on the staff: first, the note for one being written upon the added line below; second, the note for one being written upon the second space.
- § 55. To distinguish between these two ways, or to determine the position of the scale on the staff, a letter is used as a guide, called a Crev.\*

<sup>\*</sup>Scals -Signifying a ladder, or series of steps.

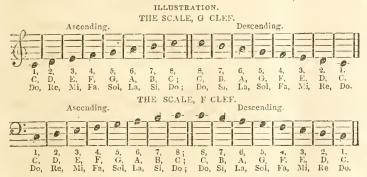
<sup>\*</sup> CLEF.-Signifying Kee

\$ 56. There are two letters commonly used as clefs, F and G.

Note 1.—The form of these letters when used as Clefs can be pointed out by the Teacher Note 2.—The letter C is also taken for a clef, but as it is not much in use in this country, and as it is fast going out of use in England and Germany, it is not thought necessary to explain it here.

\$ 57. The F Clef is placed upon the fourth line; hence, when this clef is used the note representing one (C) must be placed upon the second space.

§ 58. The G Clef is placed upon the second line; hence when this clef is used the note representing one (C) must be placed upon the added line below.



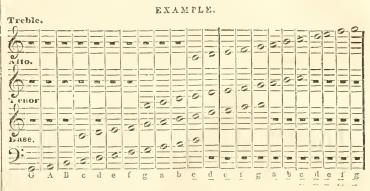
#### CHAPTER XIII.

MELODICS- EXTENSION OF THE SCALE AND CLASSIFICATION OF VOICES.

- § 59. When tones higher than eight are sung, eight is to be regarded as one of an upper scale.
- § 60. When tones lower than one are sung, one is to be regarded as eight of a lower scale.
- § 61. The human voice is naturally divided into four classes: low male voices, or Bass; high male voices, or Tenor; low female voices, or Alto; high female voices, or Trene.

NOTE.—Besides the above, there are also other distinctions, as BARYTONE. between the Base and Tenor. And the Mezzo Sophano, between the Alto and Treble. The Treble is often called Sophano.

§ 62. The G clef is used, not only for the Treble and Alto, but also often for the Tenor; but when used for the Tenor, it denotes G an octave lower than when used for the Treble and Alto. The following table exhibits the common use of the clefs; and also the usual compass and relative position of the different parts:



4 63. To distinguish between the different tones denoted by the same letter, cap.ta. and small letters, together with marks below or above them, are used. Thus, ir the above example, the lowest three notes are designated by capital letters; at the tone represented by them are called capital, or great G, or great A, and grea. The notes in the next octave beginning with c, (with the exception of the upper one, which is considered as one of the octave above,) are designated by small letters, and the tones are called small c, small d, small c, &c. The notes in the next octave, (with the exception of the upper one,) are designated by once-marked small letters, and the tones are called once-marked small c once-marked small d, &c. The notes belonging to the next octave, are designated by twice-marked small letters. The G clef, when used for Treble or Alto voices signifies g; when used for Tenor voices, it signifies g.

Note 1 —This system of designating the tones is earried out through the whole extent of the great scale of sounds in instrumental music, consisting of nine or ten octaves, as follows:—The first, or lowest octave, is denoted by twice-marked capitals, as C (or CCC), D

DDD) &c. The next, or second ortave, is denoted by once-marked capitals as C. D E. &c.

we third out we (the upper part of which comes with the weed compose an exhibited whove) is 'control by capitals, as  $\circ$  D.F.&c. The much outly  $\circ$  ,  $\circ$  with 'consist of e.

and hed small letters, as c, d, e, &c. The seventh octave, by three-times-marked small letters, as

c. d. e. &c. The eighth octave, by four-times-marked small letters, as c, d, e, &c. The ninth

octave, by five-times-marked small letters; and the tenth octave, by six-times-marked small letters.

Note 2.—It is important that the difference of pitch between male and female voices be fully explained and illustrated.

#### CHAPTER XIV.

#### INTERVALS. STEPS AND HALF-STEPS.

- § 64. The difference of pitch between any two tones, is called An Interval. Thus, the difference of pitch between one and two, is an interval.
- § 65. In the regular succession of the tones of the scale, there are two kinds of intervals, larger and smaller.
- § 66. The larger intervals are called Steps, or Large Steps; and the smaller intervals are called Small Steps, or Half-Steps.\*
- § 67. The intervals of the scale occur in the following order:—between one and two, a step; between two and three, a step; between three and four a small step; between four and five, a step; between five and six, a step; between six and seven, a step; and between seven and eight, a small step.

#### CHAPTER XY

#### MELODICS .- THE CHROMATIC SCALE.

- § 63. Between those tones of the scale which form the interval of a step, an intermediate, or Chromatic\* tone may be introduced: thus, intermediate or chromatic tones may occur between 1 and 2, 2 and 3, 4 and 5, 5 and 6, 6 and 7; but not between 3 and 4, and 7 and 8, because the intervals between these tones are already half-steps, and these are the smallest practicable intervals
- § 69. Intermediate or chromatic tones are named numerically (relative pitch) from one of the tones of the diatonic scale between which they occur, but with the word Sharp or Flat, or a character called a shart (\$\psi\$) or a flat (\$\psi\$) in connection, to distinguish them from the diatonic tones: thus, the intermediate tone between one and two, if named from one, is called Sharp One (\$\psi\$1); and if named from two, is called Flat Two (\$\psi\$2). †

The intermediate tones are also named alphabetically (absolute pitch) from one of the letters between which they occur, with the word sharp or flat also in connection: thus, the chromatic tone between C and D, if named from C, is called C Sharp (C\*); and if named from D, is called D Flat (D\*).

- § 70. The note representing an intermediate or chromatic tone, is written on the same degree of the staff as the note representing the tone from which it is named: thus, sharp one is written on the same degree of the staff as one; flat two is written on the same degree as two, &c.
- § 71. A scale of thirteen tones, including all the intermediate, or chromatic tones, with twelve intervals of a half-step each, is called The Chromatic Scale.
- § 72. The scale which has been heretofore described may now be called THE DIATONIC SCALE.

DIATONIC. - From two Greek words, signifying through the tones, or from tone to tone.

<sup>\*</sup> The terms tone and half-tone are in common use to designate these intervals; but as the application of the same word both to sounds and intervals is inconvenient, the discontinuance of the term tone and half-tone is recommended, especially in teaching. The objection to the introduction of the terms major second and minor second is explained in a note on page 5; besides which it may be added that these terms are wanted for another purpose, and in another connection, as the pupil advances.

<sup>\*</sup>Chromatic.—From a Greek word, signifying color. The intermediate, or chromatic tones, having been formerly written with colored ink. The term may also nave a figurative signification, as chromatics in music, may be regarded as analogous to coloring in painting.

<sup>†</sup> Sharp, in the technical use of the word, signifies higher: thus, the meaning of sharp one is, higher than one. Flat signifies lower: thus, the meaning of flat two is, lower than two.

#### EXAMPLE.

THE CHROMATIC SCALE. Notes, Letters and Syllables.





- 6 73. The sign of an intermediate or chromatic tone (\(\frac{1}{2}\) or \(\frac{1}{2}\)), belongs not only to the note before which it is placed, but also to all the following notes on the same degree of the staff in the measurc.
- § 74. The sign of a chromatic tone belongs to all the notes that follow it, from measure to measure, when no intervening note occurs on another degree of the staff.
- § 75. The sign of an intermediate, or chromatic tone (∦ or b), is cancelled or annulled by a character called a NATURAL (3).\*

#### CHAPTER XVI.

#### DIATONIC INTERVALS.

§ 76. In addition to those intervals called steps and half-steps, belonging to the scale in its regular progression, there are also other interva's occasioned by skipping: as Seconds, Thirds, Fourths, Fifths, Sixths, Sevenths, and Octaves.

§ 77. Intervals are always reckoned from the lower tone upwards, unless

otherwise expressed.

#### DIATONIC INTERVALS.

Note.—Diatonic, because they are produced by skips in the diatonic scale.

- \$ 78. Two tones being on the same pitch are called Unison, or said to be in Unison.
- § 79. The interval between 1 and 2, or 2 and 3, or between any tone and the tone that is represented on the second degree of the staff, inclusive, above it, is called a Second.
- 6 80. The interval between 1 and 3, or between 2 and 4, or between any tone and the tone that is represented on the third degree of the staff, inclusive, above it, is called a THIRD.
  - § 81. The interval between 1 and 4, or between 2 and 5, is called a FOURTH.
  - § 82. The interval between 1 and 5, or between 2 and 6, is called a Fifth.
  - § 83 The interval between 1 and 6, or between 2 and 7, is called a Sixth
  - § 84. The interval between 1 and 7, or between 2 and 8, is called a Seventh.
- § 85. The interval between 1 and 8, or between 2 and 9, (or 2 of the next series) is called an OCTAVE.

#### CHAPTER XVII.

#### INTERVALS, MAJOR AND MINOR.

§ 86. Seconds.

- 1. A second consisting of a half-step, is a MINOR SECOND.
- 2. A second consisting of a step, is a Major Second

6 87. Thirds.

- 1. A third consisting of a step and a half-step, is MINOR.
- 2. A third consisting of two steps, is Major.

The name of this character seems not to have been well chosen, since it tends to mislead the mind of the pupil. It signifies, not that one sound is more natural than another, but merely that the connection which has heretofore existed between a note and a sharp or flat is now dissolved. The teacher is advised never to use the term natural in connection with the names of the tones, or to speak of C natural, B natural, natural one, natural four, &c.: but to say simply C, B, &c.; or one, four, &c. The fact is, that C# is just as natural a tone as C, and so of all the tones of the chromatic scale; one is just as natural as another, and a little child, who chooses the pitch of a song, is just as likely to commence with C as with C, or with F, as with F, &c. The term natural applies not to the thing itself, but to the mere sign of the thing; not to a tone, but to the mere sign of a tone; hence, its carcless use often renders musical language obscure and absurd.

\$ 88. Fourths.

1. A fourth consisting of two steps, and one half-step, is a Perfect Fourth.

2. A fourth consisting of three steps, is a SHARP FOURTH.

§ 89. Fifthe.

1. A fifth consisting of two steps and two half-steps, is a FLAT FIFTH.

2. A fifth consisting of three steps and a half-step, is a Perfect Fifth.

§ 90. Sixths.

1. A sixth consisting of three steps and two half-steps, is MINOR.

2. A sixth consisting of four steps and a half-step, is MAJOR.

§ 91. Sevenths.

1. A seventh consisting of four steps and two half-steps, is a FLAT SEVENTH.

2. A seventh eonsisting of five steps and one half-step, is a SHARP SEVENTH.

§ 92. Octave - An OCTAVE consists of five steps and two half-steps.

Note.—In addition to the intervals already mentioned, there are others arising out of the chromatic scale, but as they properly belong to the study of harmony, further notice of them is omitted in this work.

#### CHAPTER XVIII.

#### TRANSPOSITION OF THE SCALE.

- § 93. Preliminary remark.—It will be borne in mind that the seale is a succession of sounds, irrespective of any definite pitch, but which sounds bear one to another a fixed relation; this relation consisting in, or depending upon, the intervals or differences of pitch between them. It will also be remembered that letters represent the absolute pitch of sounds; and that the pitch of each letter is unalterably fixed.
- § 94. When the scale begins with C, or when C is taken as one, or as the pitch of the scale, it is said to be in its NATURAL POSITION;\* but the pitch may be changed, and any other letter may be taken as one, in which case the scale is said to be TRANSPOSED. Transposition consists in changing the pitch, or in taking any other letter than C as one, or as the basis of the scale.
- § 95 The letter which is taken as one, is called the Key Letter, or Key Note, or simply the Key. Thus, if the scale be in its natural position, with C as one, is said to be in the Key of C. If its pitch be changed, and D be taken

as one, it is said to be in the Key of D, and so on. By the key of C, is meant that the scale is based on C, or that C is taken as one; by the key of D, is meant that the scale is based on D, or that D is taken as one, and so on.

- § 96. In transposing the scale, the proper order of intervals, must be preserved. Thus, in every key, the intervals must be as follows: between one and two, a step; between two and three, a step; between three and four, a half-step; between four and five, a step; between five and six, a step; between six and seven, a step; and between seven and eight, a half-step.
- § 97. The interval between one letter and another is fixed, and cannot be altered. Thus, the interval is a step between C and D, a step between D and E, a half-step between E and F, a step between F and G, a step between G and A, a step between A and B, and a half-step between B and C.
- § 93. In the transposition of the seale, the proper order of intervals is preserved by the use of the intermediate (sharp or flat) tones: or, in other words, in the transposition of the scale, it becomes necessary to omit certain tones belonging to the given key, or key from which the transposition is made, and to take from the chromatic scale such other tones as may be required to constitute the new key, or to preserve the proper order of its intervals.\*

ILLUSTRATION.



EXPLANATION.—The above diagram is designed to represent the chromatic scale, iuwhich each interval is a half-step. The figures above, are intended to represent the scale in its natural position (key of C), C as one, D as two, &c. The figures below, are intended to represent the scale transposed into the key of D, D as one, E as two, F & as three, &c.

It will be observed, that if D be one, E must be two, because the interval between one and two must be a step; F will not do for three, because the interval between E and F is but a half-step, whereas, the interval between two and three must be a step; F therefore is omitted and F\vec{g} is taken for there. Between three and four, the interval must be a half-step; and the interval hetween F\vec{g} and G is a half-step; G, therefore, is rour. Between four and five, the interval must he a step, and the interval between G and A is a step; A, therefore, is rive. Between five and six, the interval must be a step, and the interval between A and B is a step; B, therefore, is riv. Between six and seven, the interval must he a step, but as the interval between B and C is but a half-step, C will not do for seven; C\vec{g} is there

<sup>\*</sup> The term natural, as here used, has only reference to the characters by which the scale is represented, not to the scale itself, since the scale itself is just as natural in any other key as it is in C (See note on page 11.)

<sup>\*</sup> The difficulty, in transposition, consists in the transfer of the absolute pitch of sounds to the relative pitch of the souls.

fore taken for SEVEN, and the proper interval is thus obtained. Between seven and eight, the interval must be a half-step, and the interval between C and D is a half-step; D, therefore is Eight.

#### CHAPTER XIX.

#### TRANSPOSITION OF THE SCALE BY FIFTHS.

§ 99. First transposition of the scale by fifths: from C to G.

§ 100. To preserve the proper order of intervals between six and seven, and between seven and eight in this transposition, it is necessary to take  $F_{\pi}^{\#}$  as seven in the new key.

§ 101. The sign of  $F_{\pi}^{\sharp}$  ( $\frac{1}{\pi}$ ) is placed at the beginning of the staff, or immediately after the clef, and is called the Signature (sign) of the key. Thus, the signature of the key of G, is ONE SHARP, or  $F_{\pi}^{\sharp}$ . The signature to the key of C is said to be NATURAL.

#### EXAMPLE. KEY OF G.





EXPLANTION.—On the upper staff, in the above diagram, the seale is represented in the key of C. The distances of the notes, one from another, represent the different intervals, a stops and helf-steps. On the lower staff G is taken as one, A as two, B as three, C as

four, D as five, E as six; and thus far the intervals are right. But as the interval between six and seven must be a step, it is seen at once, that F will not do for seven, because the in terval between E and F, is but a subjecter; it becomes necessary, therefore, to take the intermediate tone, F\$, for seven, and this gives the proper interval between six and seven, viz.: a step. The interval between F\$ and G being a half-step, G is taken as eight, and the scale is complete in the key of G, thus—

Note.—No illustration of the transposition of the scale by diagrams, or which is in any way presented to the eye, can be fully satisfactory, or cause this subject to be practically understood. It can only be thoroughly taught by audible examples, or vocal or instrumental elucidations.

#### CHAPTER XX

#### RELATION OF TONES. TONE OF TRANSPOSITION.

§ 102. Tones are said to be related as follows: if C be one, D is two, E is three, &c.; or, D is two, considered in respect to its relation to C as one; so also, E is three, F is four, G is five, A is six, and B is seven.

And again:  $C^{\#}_{+}$  is sharp one,  $D^{\#}_{+}$  is sharp two,  $F^{\#}_{+}$  is sharp four,  $G^{\#}_{+}$  is sharp five, and  $A^{\#}_{+}$  is sharp six, when considered in relation to C as one.

And again: Db is flat two, Eb is flat three, Gb is flat five, Ab is flat six, and Bb is flat seven, when considered in relation to C as one.

§ 103. The intermediate tone required in transposition, is called THE TONK OF TRANSPOSITION, OF (in written music) THE NOTE OF TRANSPOSITION. Thus, the tone or note of transposition between the keys of C and G is F.\*.

§ 104. It will be observed that in the foregoing transposition from C to G, the pitch of the scale has been removed a fifth;\* and that the intermediate tone F\(^2\), or sharp four, has been found necessary to preserve the proper order of the intervals; hence the following rule: "Sharp four transposes the scale a fifth;" or "The tone of transposition, between any key and its fifth is sharp four."

Or a fourth below

#### ELEMENTS OF VOCAL MUSIC.

#### CHAPTER XXI.

#### TRANSPOSITION OF THE SCALE BY FIFTHS. CONTINUED.

- § 105. Second transposition of the scale by fifths; from G to D.
- § 106. To preserve the proper order of intervals between six and seven, and between seven and eight in this transposition, it is necessary to take  $C_{\pi}^{*}$  as seven and enew key.
- § 107. The sign of  $C_{\pi}^{\sharp}$  ( $\frac{\pi}{4}$ ) is placed at the beginning of the staff, a little to the right of the previous sharp, and the two sharps ( $F_{\pi}^{\sharp}$  and  $C_{\pi}^{\sharp}$ ) are taken together as the sign of the key, or as the signature.

#### EXAMPLE. KEY OF D.



#### ILLUSTRATION.



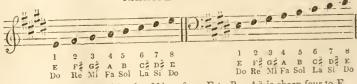
Note.—In explanation of the above diagram is supposed to be unnecessary, as it would be similar to that at § 101.

§ 108. Third transposition of the scale by fifths, from D to A. G. is sharp four to D. G., therefore, is the next sharp introduced.

# EXAMPLE. KEY OF A. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 A B C D E F G A A B C D E F G A A B C D E F G A A B C D C Re Mi Fa Sol La Si Do

§ 109. Fourth transposition of the scale by fifths; from A to E. Da is sharp four to A. Da, therefore is the next sharp.

#### EXAMPLE. Key of E.

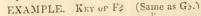


§ 110. Fifth transposition by fifths; from E to B. Az is sharp four to E.

EXAMPLE. KEY OF B. (Same as Co.)



§ 111. Sixth transposition by fifths; from B to F#. E# is sharp four to B.

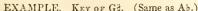


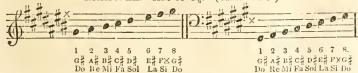






§ 113. Eighth transposition by fifths; from C# to G#. F Double Sharp (written thus: F♥,) is sharp four to C#.





§ 114. The scale may be still further transposed by fifths. to the key of D\*, with nine sharps (two double sharps); to the key of A\*, with ten sharps (three double sharps); to the key of E\*, with eleven sharps (four double sharps); to the key of B\*, with twelve sharps (five double sharps), and so on.

Note 1.—The key of B# is the same to the ear as the key of C. The difference is not in the thing itself, but merely in the sign.

Note 2.—The keys beyond F# (six sharps) are but seldom used, as the same variety may be more easily obtained in transposition by flats. The keys beyond E (four sharps) are seldom used in church music.

#### CHAPTER XXII.

#### TRANSPOSITION OF THE SCALE BY FOURTHE.

- § 115. First transposition of the scale by fourths; from C to F.
- § 116. To preserve the proper order of intervals between three and four, and between four and five in this transposition, it is necessary to take Bb as four in the new key. Bb is, therefore, the signature to the key of F.

#### EXAMPLE. KEY OF F



#### ILLUSTRATION.



Note.—An explanation of the above diagram would be so similar to that at \$103, that it is supposed to be unnecessary. It will be observed that  $B_b$  is taken for four, and not  $A_a^a$ , because the scale must always proceed from one letter to another;  $A_a^a$  cannot follow  $A_b$ , in the diatonic scale.

- § 117. It will be observed that, in the foregoing transposition from C to F, the pitch of the scale has been removed a fourth;\*\* and the intermediate tone, Bb, or flat seven, has been found necessary to preserve the proper order of the interval. Hence the following rule: "Flat seven transposes the scale a fourth;" or, "The tone or note of transposition, between any key and its fourth is flat seven.
  - § 118. Second transposition of the scale by fourths; from F to Bb.
- § 119. To preserve the proper order of intervals between three and four, and between four and five in this transposition, it is necessary to take E5 as four in the new key.
- § 120. The sign of Eb (b) is placed a little to the right of the previous flat, and the two flats are taken as the signature.

\* A fifth below.



§ 121. Third transposition of the scale by fourths, from B; to E;. A; is flat seven to B;. A;, therefore, is the next flat introduced.

#### EXAMPLE. KEY OF Eb.



§ 122. Fourth transposition of the scale by fourths; from Eb to Ab. Db is flat seven to Eb. Db, therefore is the next flat introduced.

#### EXAMPLE. KEY OF Ab.



§ 123. Fifth transposition by fourths; from Ab to Db. Gb is flat seven to Ab.

#### EXAMPLE. Ker of Do. (Same as C#.)



§ 124. Sixth transposition by fourths; from Do to Go Co is flat seven to Do



§ 125. Seventh transposition by fourths; from G; to Co. F; is flat seven to Gb.

#### EXAMPLE. Key of Cb. (Same as B.)



§ 126. Eighth transposition by fourths; from C5 to F5. B Double Flat (written B55,) is flat seven to C5.

#### EXAMPLE. Key of Fb. (Same as E.)



§ 127. The scale may be still further transposed by fourths: to the key of B55 with nine flats (two double flats); to the key of E55, with ten flats (three double flats); to the key of A55, with eleven flats (four double flats); to the key of D55, with twelve flats (five double flats), and so on.

Note 1.—The key of Dbb is the same to the ear as the key of C. The difference is not at the thing itself, but merely in the sign.

Note 2.—The keys beyond  $G_b$  (six flats) are but seldom used, as the same variety may be more easily obtained in transpositions by sharps. The keys beyond  $A_b$  (four flats) are seldom used in church music.

#### CHAPTER XXIII.

#### MINOR SCALE.

- § .28. In addition to the scale as explained at Chapter XI, there is another diatonic scale, differing from that in respect to its intervals, called the Minor Scale. The former scale is called Major.
- § 129. The intervals in the minor scale are as follows: between one and two a step; between two and three, a half-step; between three and four a step; between four and five, a step; between five and six, a half-step; between six and seven, a step and a half-step; and between seven and eight, a half-step.

EXAMPLE. MINOR SCALE.



COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE MAJOR AND MINOR SCALES.

Note.—There are also other forms of the minor scale, but it is not considered necessary to explain them since it can be of no practical importance to the singer; the person who can sing the scale in the form here given, or rather who has made some little progress in the practice of the chromatic scale, will find no difficulty in any form of the minor scale.

- § 130. The minor scale, in its first or natural position, commences with A, or A is taken as one, as in the above example.
- § 131. When the major and minor scales have the same signature, they are said to be related. Thus the key of C major is the relative major to A minor; and the key of A minor is the relative minor to C major.

- § 132. The relative minor to any major key is found a sixth above it, or is based upon its sixth; and the relative major to any minor key is found a third above it, or is based upon its third.
- § 133. The letters and syllables correspond in the major and its relative minor Thus, the syllable Do, is applied to C in both cases, although it is one in the major, and three in the minor scale, &c.

#### DYNAMICS.

#### CHAPTER XXIV.

#### DYNAMIC DEGREES.

- § 134. A tone which is neither loud nor soft, is a medium, or middle tone; it is called Mezzo (pronounced met-zo, or mate-zo), and is marked m.
- § 135. A tone somewhat softer than metzo, is a soft tone; it is called Piano (pronounced  $pee-\hat{u}n$ -o), and is marked p.
- § 136. A tone somewhat louder than metzo is a loud tone; it is called Forte, and marked f.
- § 137. A tone somewhat softer than *piano*, yet so loud as to be a good audible sound, is called Pianissimo (pronounced *pee-an-is-si-mo*), and is marked *pp*.
- § 138. A tone somewhat louder than forte, but not so loud as to degenerate into a scream, is called Fortissimo, and is marked ff.
- Note.—Mezzo, Plano and Forte, are Italian words, which, by long usage, have become technical terms in music, and are used by all nations.

#### CHAPTER XXV.

#### DYNAMIC TONES.

- § 139. Organ Tone.—a tone commenced, continued, and ended, with an equal degree of power, is called an Organ Tone.
- § 140. Crescendo.—A tone commencing soft, and gradually increasing to loud, is called Crescendo. (Cres. or —)
- § 141. DIMINUENDO.—A tone commencing loud and gradually diminishing to soft, is called DIMINUENDO. (Dim. or \_\_\_\_\_\_)

§ 142. Swell.—An union of the rescendo and diminuendo, produces the Swelling Tone, or Swell. (

143. PRESSURE TONE.—A very sudden crescendo, or swell, is called a PRESSURE TONE. (⟨or ⟨>)

§ 144. EXPULSIVE OF EXPLOSIVE TONE.—A tone which is struck suddenly and foreibly, and instantly diminished, is called an EXPULSIVE, OF EXPLOSIVE TONE: also FORZANDO, OF SFORZANDO. (> or sf. fz.)

Note. - The proper application of dynamics, constitutes the form of musical expression.

#### CHAPTER XXVI.

#### MISCELLANEOUS SIGNS OR CHARACTERS

§ 145. Passing Notes.—Notes of comparatively small size are often used, called Passing Notes.

Note.—Passing notes are used to represent tones that do not essentially belong to a melody, but which are regarded as tasteful or ornamental.

§ 146. Approgrammer.—When a passing note precedes an essential note, on an accented part of the measure, it is called an Approgrammer.

§ 147. After Note.—When a passing note follows an essential note, on an unaccented part of a measure, it is called an After Note.





§ 148. Shake or Trill.—The Shake (tr) consists of a rapid alternation of two sounds. It should be cultivated by those who would acquire smoothness and flexibility of voice.

#### EXAMPLE.

#### SHAKE OR TRILL REPRESENTED.



§ 149. Turn.—The Turn consists of a principal sound, with the sounds next above and below it. It should be performed with care and neatness, but not too quick. Its sign is (\*).



§ 150. Legato.—When a passage is performed in a close, smooth, and gliding manner, it is said to be Legato.



§ 151. Staccato.—When a passage is performed in a pointed, distinct, and articulate manner, it is said to be Staccato.



- § 152. Tre.—A character called a Tre, is used to show how many notes belong to one syllable. It is also used to denote the legato style.
- § 153. Pause.—When the duration of a tone is to be prolonged beyond its usual time, a character called a Pause is placed over the note by which it is represented.
- 6 154. Double Bar.—A Double Bar or shows the end of a strain of music, or of a line of the poetry.
- § 155. Brace.—A Brace is used to connect the staves on which the different parts are written.
- § 156. Direct.—The Direct (442) is sometimes used at the end of a staff, to show on what degree of the following staff the first note is placed.

#### CHAPTER XXVII.

#### EXPRESSION OF WORDS, AND MISCELLANEOUS DIRECTIONS.

§ 157. Tonic Sounds.—The tonic (vowel) sounds only should be sustained in singing. It is on these alone that the voice should dwell. They should be delivered with accuracy, and carefully prolonged, without being changed. To insure this, the vocal organs should be immovably fixed from the beginning to the end of a tone; not the least change should be allowed in the position of the throat, mouth, or tongue; nor indeed of the head or body.

It is a very common fault for singers to change the tonic sounds, and dwell not on the radical but on the ranks or closing sound; thus a becomes e; o, oc; &c. In the word "great." or example, instead of dwelling steadily upon the tonic sound o, the singer changes it to o, and that which should be grea · · · · · t, becomes grea · · · · · · t; so also in the syllable applied to Two Jati' be Ra · · · · e, and not Ra · e ·

- § 158. Consonants.—Articulation is essentially dependent on the consonants. These should, therefore, receive very particular attention, and be delivered quickly, smartly, distinctly, and with the greatest precision. The neglect of a careful utterance of the consonants, is often a principal cause of indistinctness in singing.
- § 159. Accent.—Accent is as important in singing as in speaking. If the poetry be regular in its construction, and is properly adapted to the music, the accentuation of the two will correspond. If otherwise, that of the former must, in general, be attended to, and the musical accent made to conform to it
- § 160. Pause.—Pauses, especially rhetorical pauses, are essential to good singing. In general, when necessary, they must be obtained, not by an interruption of rhythmic divisions, as is the case in the use of the character called a pause, but by shortening the preceding note, thus:



Joy to the world, the Lord is come! Joy to the world, the Lord is come!

- § 161. EMPHASIS.—Emphatic words should be given with greater or less power, often with sf., and without reference to rhythmic accent. In common psalmody its application is difficult, from the frequent want of a proper adaptation of the poetry to the music, or rhythmic appropriateness of one to the other. The effect of emphasis may often be increased by a momentary pause. (See §160)
- § 162. Opening of the Mouth.—The mouth should, in general, be free y opened. It is very common in singers not to open their mouth sufficiently wide to give a free and full passage to the sound.
- § 163. TAKING BREATH.—(1) In taking breath make as little noise as possible.
- (2) Let it be done quickly, and without any change in the position of the mouth.
- (3) Never breathe between the different syllables of the same word.
- (4) When several notes come together, to one syllable, do not breathe between them, except in long running passages, or divisions where it cannot be avoided.
- (5) Words which are intimately connected in sense, as the article and its noun or the preposition and its noun, should not be separated by taking breath.

- (6) 'The practice of breathing at a particular part of the measure, or of rhythmic breathing, should be avoided.
  - (7) Take breath no more frequently than is necessary.
- (S) Exercises on the explosive tone (fz. or sf.) will assist in acquiring the art of taking breath.
- § 164. Quality of Tone.—The most essential qualities of a good tone, are purity, fullness, firmness, and certainty.
- (1) A tone is pure, or clear, when no extraneous sound mixes with it; IMPURE, when something like a hissing, screaming, or luskiness is heard. Impurity is often produced by an improper position of the mouth.
- (2) A tone is full, when it is delivered in a free and unconstrained use of the appropriate organs of sound. A tone is faint, when it is produced by a careless or negligent use of the organs.
- (3 and 4) A tone is FIRM and CERTAIN, which, being correctly given, is held steadily, without change: and which seems to be perfectly under the control of the performer. Hence, the following are faults, viz:—
- (1) Striking below the proper sound and sliding up to it, as from five to eight, &c.
  - (2) A wavering, or trembling of the voice.
- (3) A change just at the close of the tone, produced by a careless relaxation of the organs, which should always be held firm and immovable in their proper position, until the sound ceases.
- § 165. To correct faults.—Whenever the teacher discovers a fault, let him first imitate it himself, and afterwards give the true style of performance; then let him require the pupil to imitate both the bad and the good example. It is not sufficient for the teacher to say that a certain fault exists, he must actually point it out, or exhibit it by his own performance, and this over and over again, until the pupil obtains a clear perception of it, and knows both how to produce it, and how to avoid it.
- § 166. In all vocal performances, attend to the spirit of the words. Enter into those emotions which are expressed by the poetry. Avoid a dull, heavy, unmeaning, unfeeling, automaton-like style of performance, and cultivate that which comes from the heart, which has some soul, some meaning, and which is appropriate to the words and music. The composer does but furnish the mere skeleton, and it depends upon the performer to say whether that inanimate form

shall live, and breathe, and move, so as to take deep hold of the affections and control the feelings of others, thus producing the effects for which music is designed, and for which it is so admirably adapted.

NOTE.—Lablache, in his excellent system, has the following remarks:

ON THE MANNER OF EXERCISING THE VOICE.—Experience has shown that in order to form the voice and equalize it, the pupil should sing much on the vowel sound ä, and a little also, but at a later period, on the sound a. This is called vocalizing.

Vocalizing—by laying bare, so to speak, all the faults of the voice, which would be in part disguised by the employment of words—becomes for this reason the most efficacious means of combating them.

The conditions of good vocalizing are 1st, to know how to hold the mouth well; 2d, to breathe well; 3d, to form and send forth the sounds of the different registers; 4th, to pass insensibly from the sounds of one register to those of another; 5th, to attack and connect sounds for forming successions. We proceed to devote a special section to the analysis of each of these conditions.

On the Position of the Mouth.—The mouth should be kept smiling, without distortion, and opened sufficiently to admit the end of the forefinger.

The jaws should remain not always perpendicular one over the other, as has been wrongly said, but in the position which is most natural for the conformation of the pupil's mouth.

The tongue should be suspended, and placed in such a manner as to leave the greatest possible open space.

On the Respiration.—A long and easy breathing is one of the most essential qualities for the singer. Hence we persuade the pupil to practice holding his breath for a long time, even without singing. In order to take in the breath, he should be careful to contract the abdomen, and to make the chest rise and swell as much as possible. He should remain in this position as long as he can, and then he should let the breath flow out very slowly, until his abdomen and his chest have regained their natural position. Afterwards he should begin again, observing that the mouth is moderately open, as well in drawing in the air, as in pressing it out again. By this exercise, lungs of a moderate capacity will become able to furnish a well-pitched sound which will last from 18 to 29 seconds.

reorx.—The following exercises are gradually progressive. They have been prepared with reference to such persons as are beginning to learn to read music, or to sing by note or from written characters, whether children or adults. They are intended particularly for singing schools, and are equally well adapted to the wants of the teacher who pursues either the inductive or preceptive method of teaching, or who unites in his practice both of these methods, according to the circumstances of his class. They are designed both as illustrations, and also as practical exercises to be sung by the pupils as they proceed from step to step in their work. Previous illustrations or exercises of a more simple character may be required, but these every good teacher will be able to write upon the board at the instant when they are wanted.

B it there is another important view in which we desire to present these lessins. They are so arranged as to constitute in themselves, a complete practical system or method of teaching, independent of the investigations of the inductive teacher on the one hand, and of the a priori rules of the preceptive teacher on the other, and they may be pursued without reference to the axioms, explanations or definitions laid down in this or any other book. The class, therefore, which is ready to begin to learn to read music, may begin at once in the use of these lessons. This mode of teaching, which will be new to many, (and it may be made an excellent one,) we will attempt very briefly to describe.

The class being ready to receive instruction, the first step on the part of the teacher may be to write on the board the first lesson, or a similar one. This being done, he calls the attention of the class, and pointing to the notes, he sings do, do, re, re, or as the lesson may be. After a few repetitions so that he may be perfectly understood, he requires the class to do the same thing, or to sing the lesson as he has done, he pointing to the notes as before; and this without any naming of characters, or pointing out their use, or previous explanations whatever. After a few lessons in this way from the board, he may proceed in a similar manner in the use of the printed exercises contained in the book; gradually and as it were, incidentally explaining the uses of different characters, and giving them their appropriate names. This describing and naming of characters, however, should always be an after and not a fore work; it should not receive attention until the practical part which has preceded it is quite well understood; and even then it is never to be regarded as a very important part of the teacher's work, which should consist mainly in teaching his pupils to sing the lesson; they looking at the notes or characters while they sing; for by looking they will learn. Let this course be gradually pursued, and it will be found one of the shortest and most certain singing school methods.

We do not mean, however, to recommend it to the neglect of those before

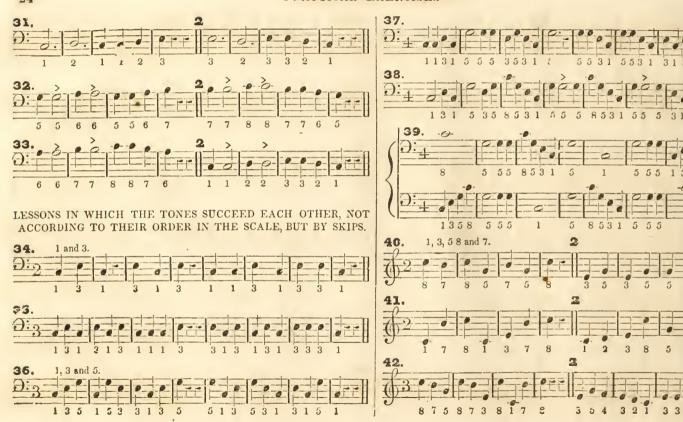
mentioned. The best teacher will not be confined to any particular previously laid out plan, but will from the different methods make out one of his own; not indeed one that is stereotyped and unalterable, but one that he may modify and adapt to the varying wants and circumstances of his different classes.

But whatever may be the method of the teacher, if he teaches the commonly received principles of music, and of musical notation, he will find the following lessons adapted to his purpose; since these universally received principles of music, are here gradually developed and illustrated.

# LESSONS ON THE SCALE.



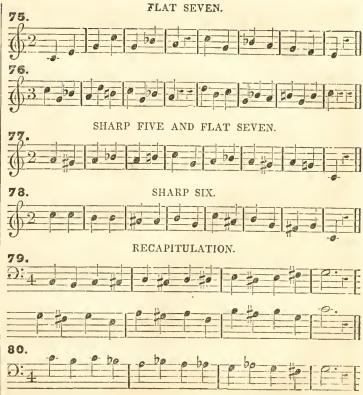




















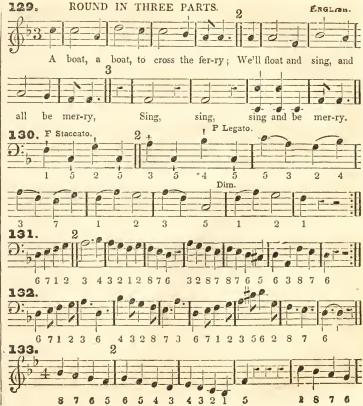










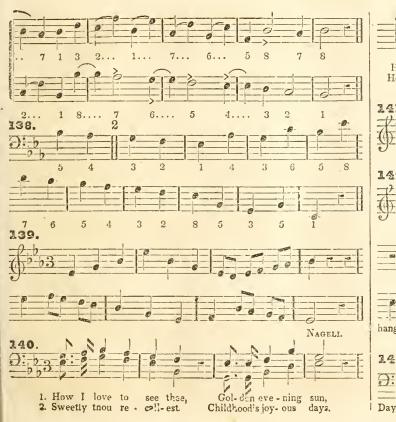


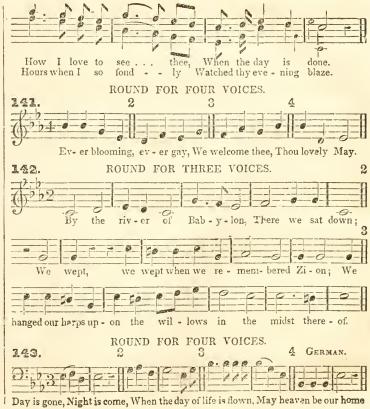


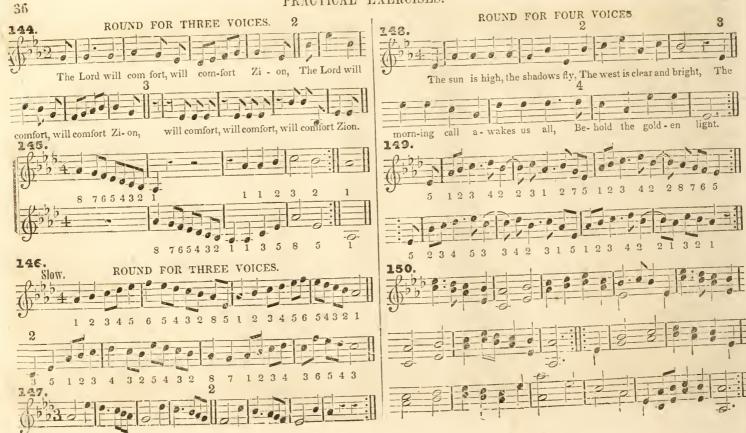




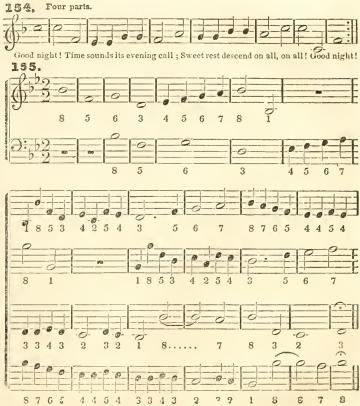






















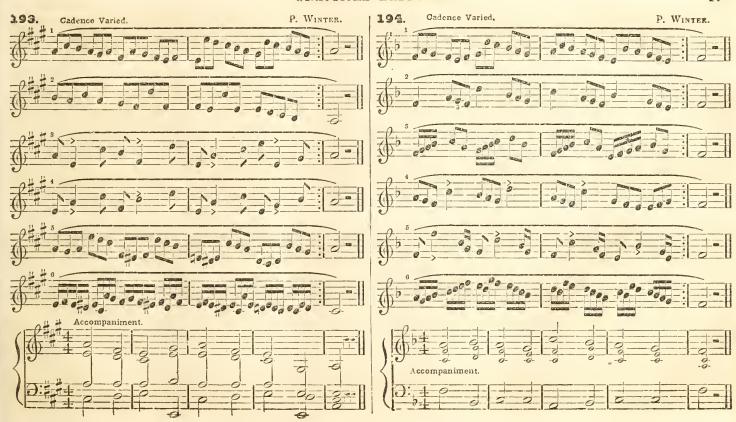


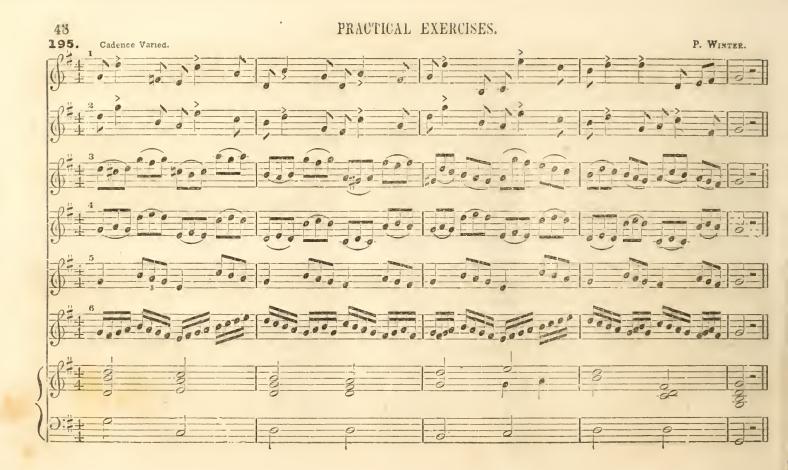




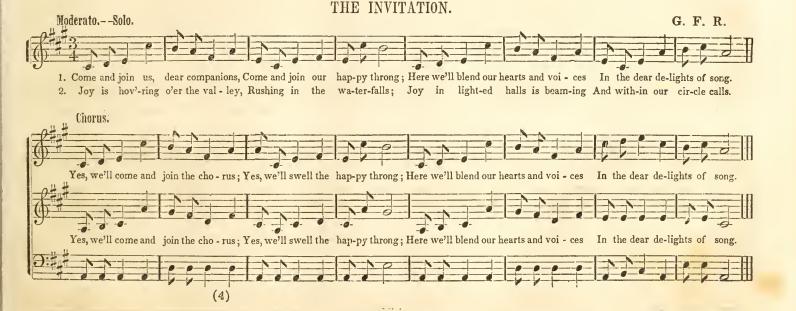




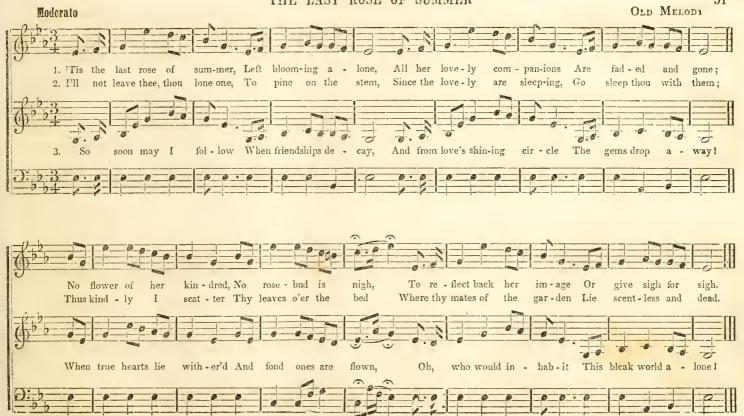




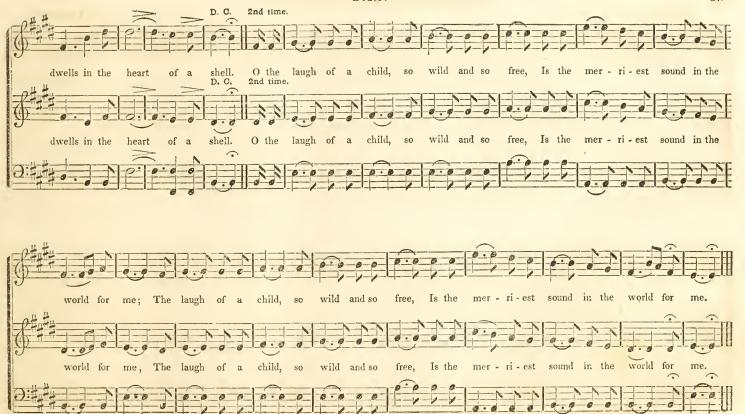
## THE ACADEMY VOCALIST.





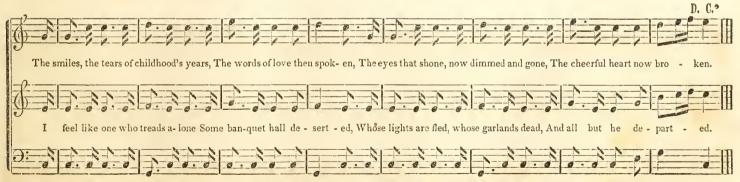




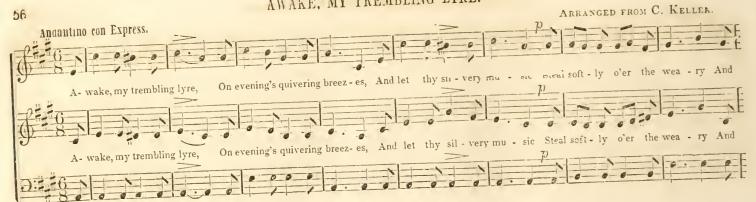








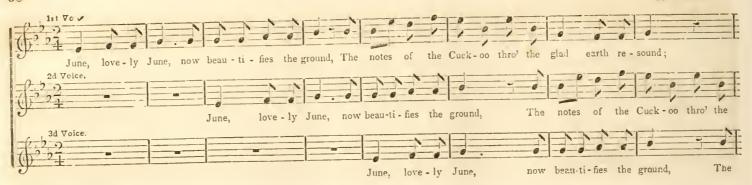
\* Embstitute "Thus" for "Oft," in D. C



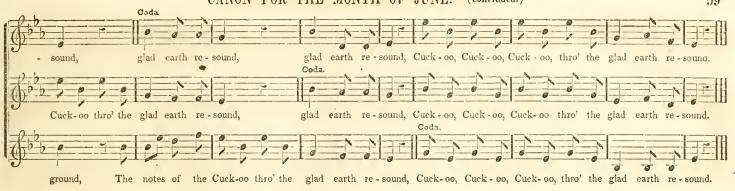


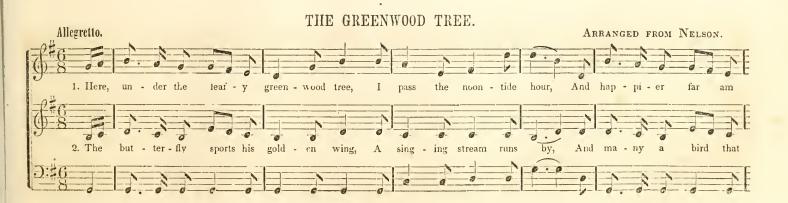








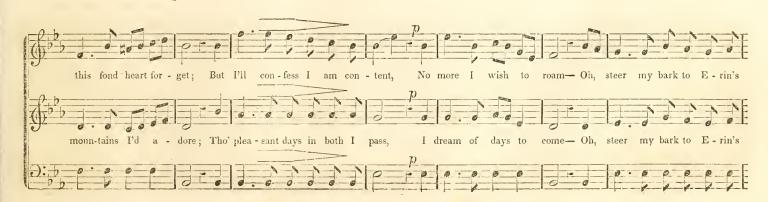


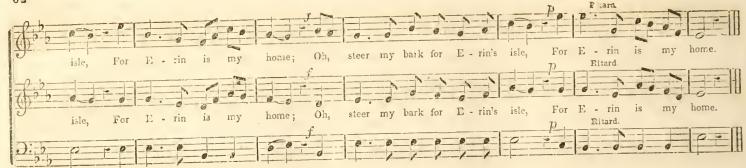












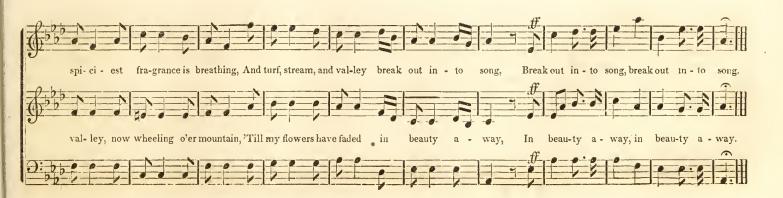












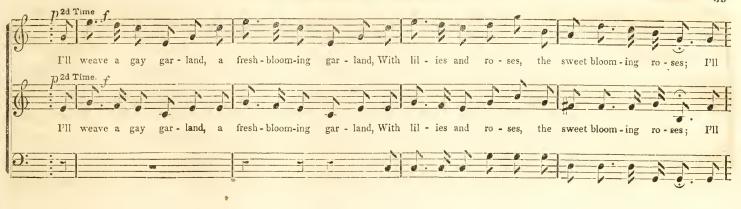






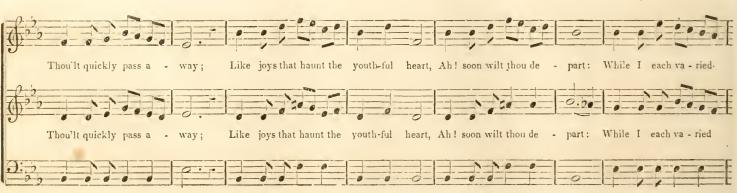




















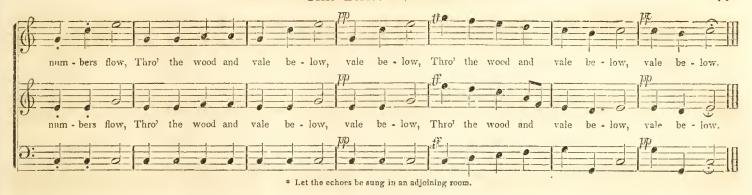






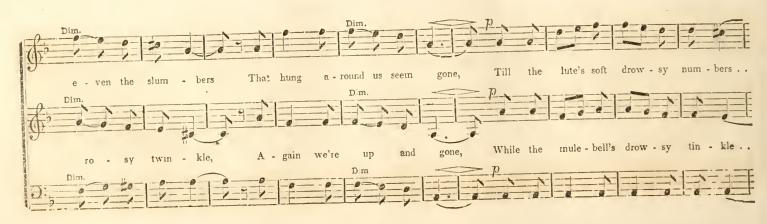


















\* From "Bradbury's Alpine Glee-singer," by permission











wane; Oh, still may shine thy glo-ry's sun, And all thy promised good be won! Long live, sweet freedom's land! Long live, sweet freedom's land!



## BEAUTIFUL STAR!











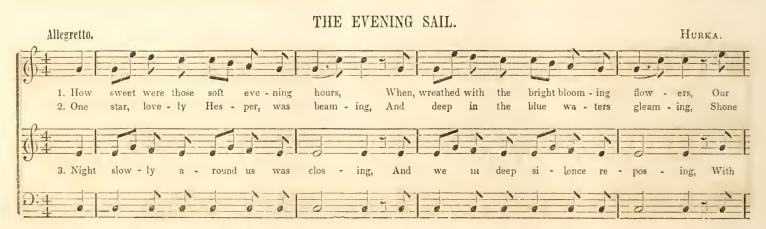






























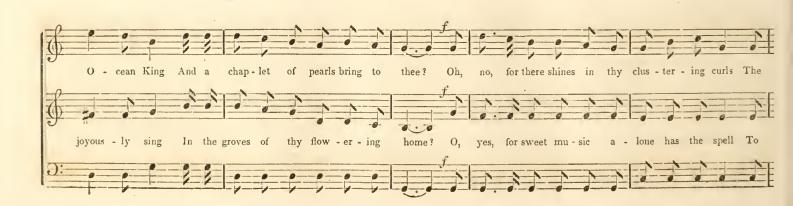


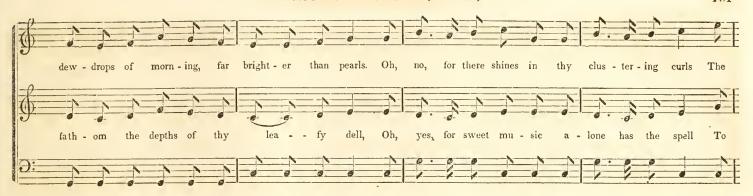


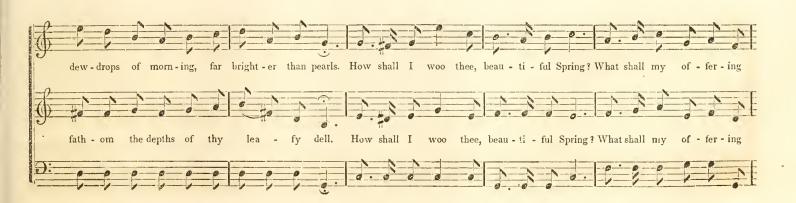






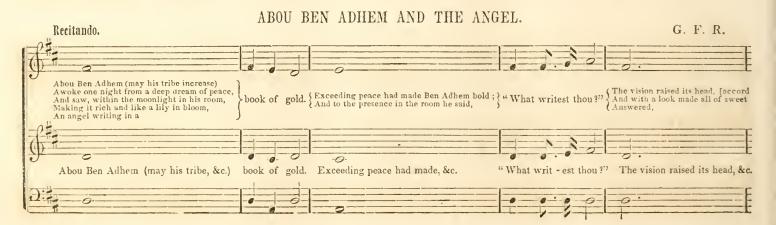


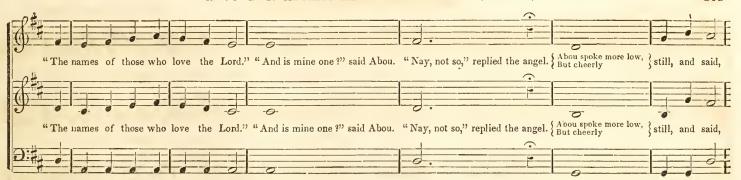


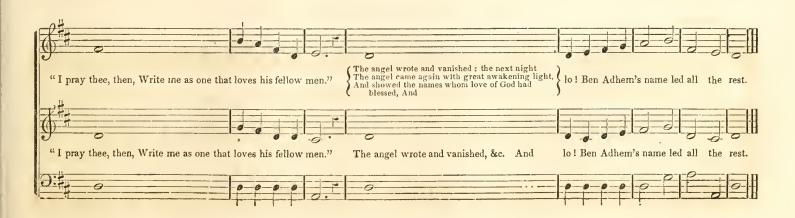


## BEAUTIFUL SPRING. (Concluded.)











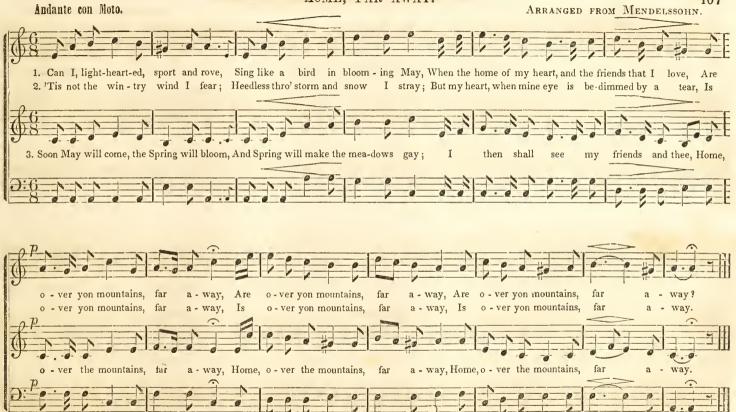




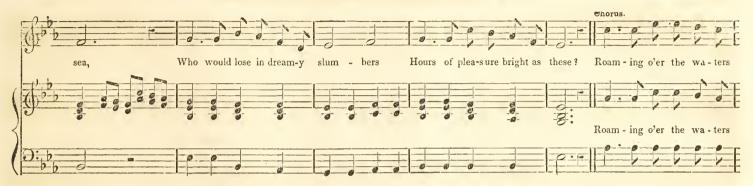


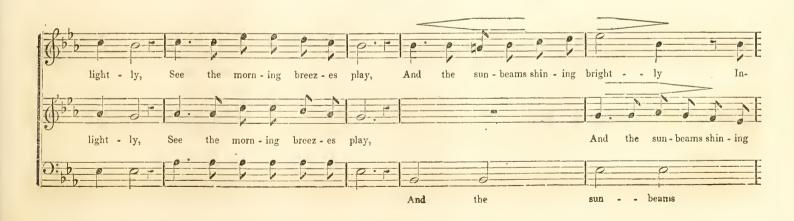




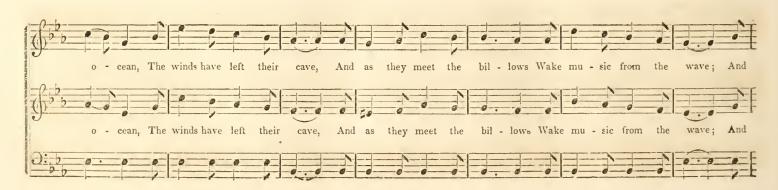




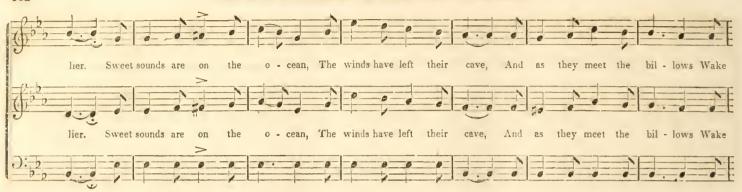




























\* If this is accompanied by a piano, play, instead of singing the notes to the word "tchick," lightly with the right hand on the upper part of the instrument.









## PEACEFUL NIGHTS. (Continued.)



## PEACEFUL NIGHTS. (Concluded.)





















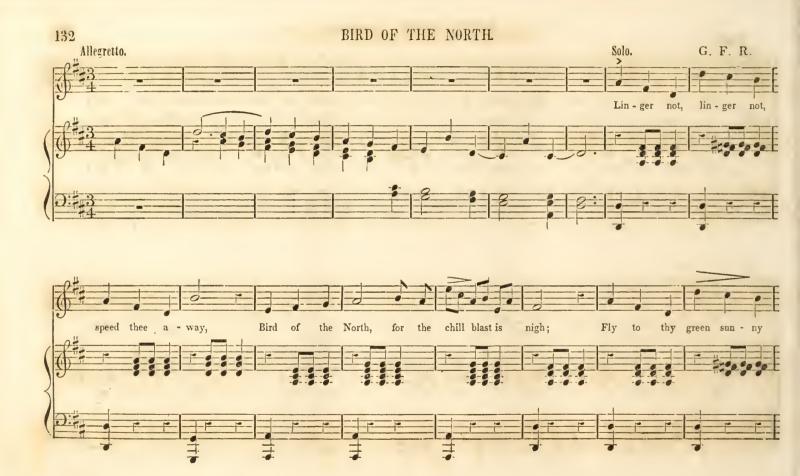


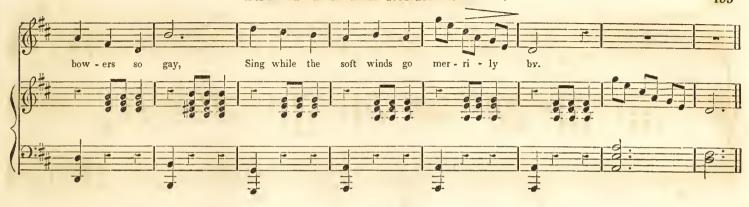


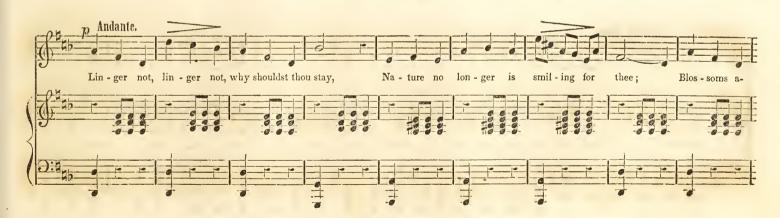












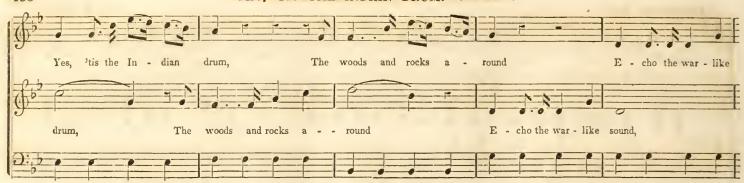




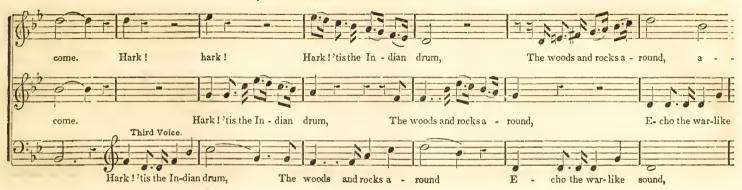




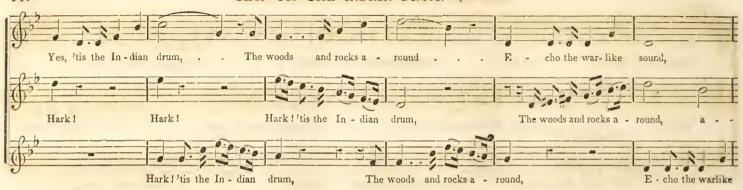




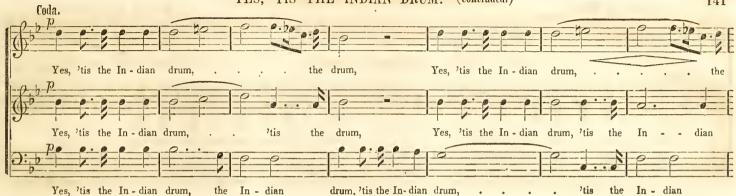


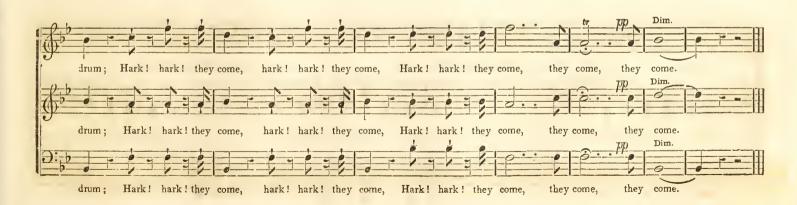














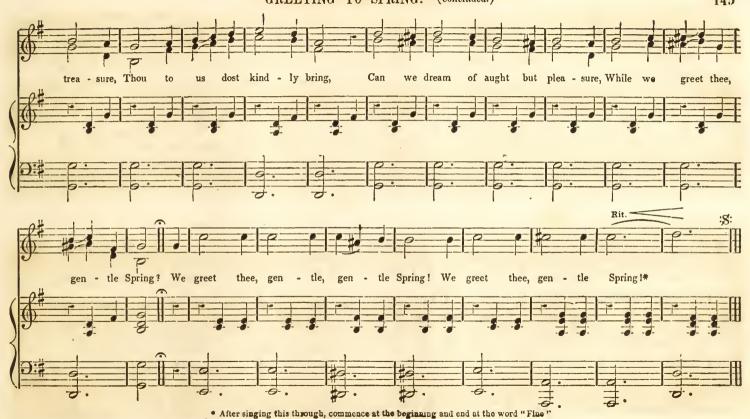
Pours its brightness o'er the earth,

Now from peaceful slumbers

its brightness o'er the earth,

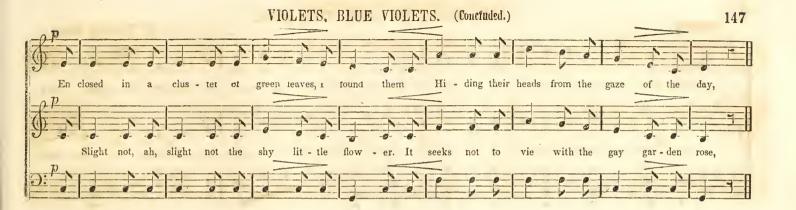






(10)



































2. Let those contemn who prize thee not, I leave them to their tireless lot,

And when distress or care assail, If then my solace ne'er should fail,

All sorrows I behind me fling, And raise my heart and voice to sing, A rich inheritance to me.

For Music thou wilt ever be





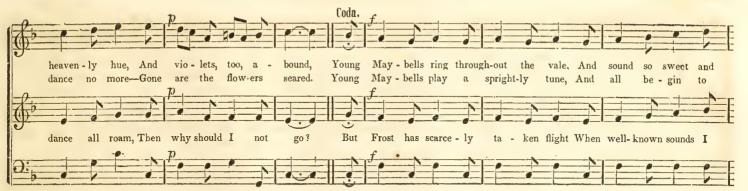






". The alternate verses slower and softer.

















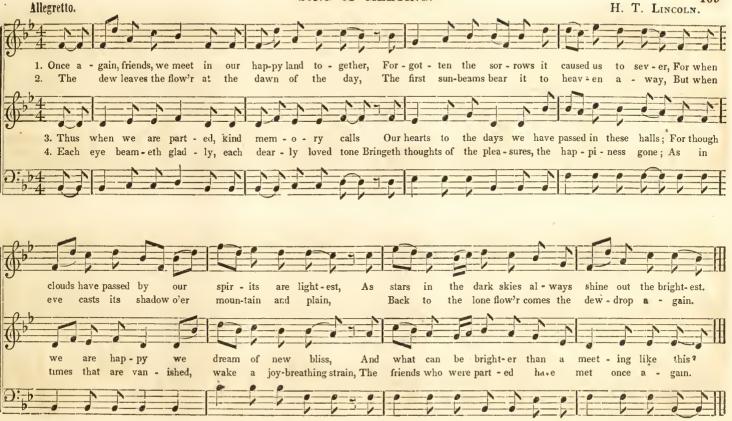






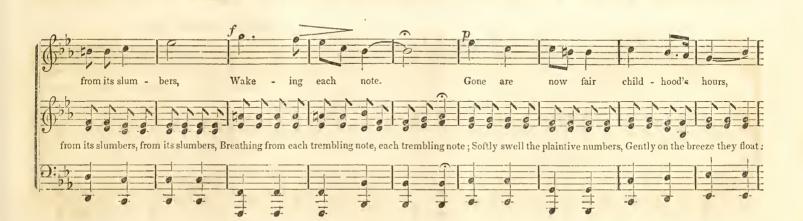








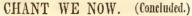




2D VERSE. Soft-ly swell the plain tive num-bers, Gently on the breeze they float; Grief is waking























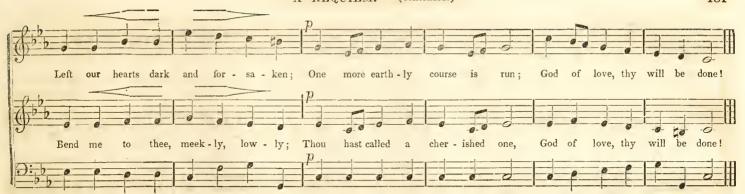






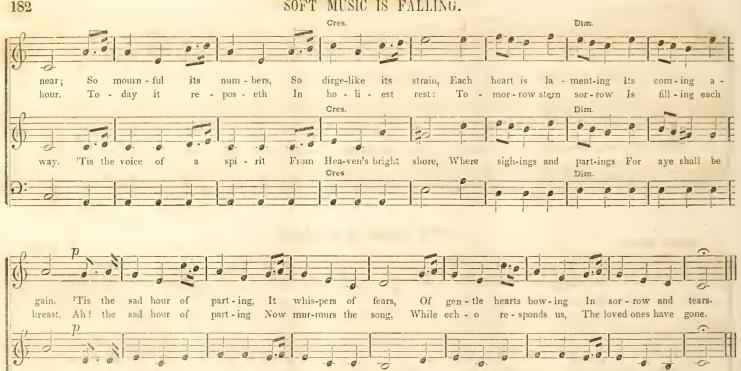








### SOFT MUSIC IS FALLING.



o'er. 'Tis the glad hour of meet-ing, And hope fills each heart, While an - gels are chant-ing- No more shall we

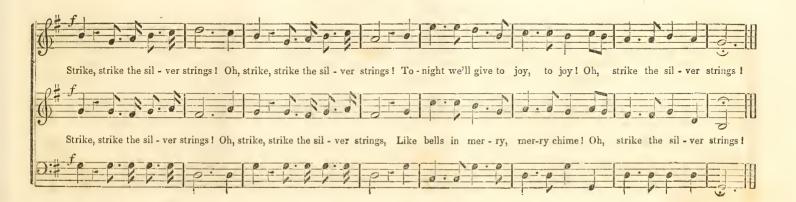
part.

















## ADIEU TO A TEACHER.

(To be sung to the music of "Once Again.")

1

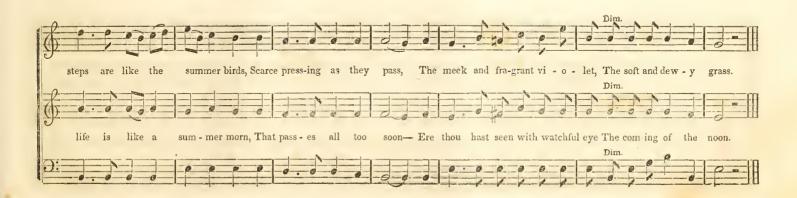
Though thou leav'st us, still we'll bless thee,
Grateful for thy kindly care;
Through the scenes where God may call thee,
Take our earnest, fervent prayer.
All thy counsels shall be dwelling
Deep within each youthful heart,
Though thy voice no more may utter
Words of love with gentle art

2.

Up the rugged hill of Science
Thou hast led us kindly on,
Toward the temple where for ages
Wisdom's star has brightly shone.
Though thou leav'st us, still we'll bless thee,
Grateful for thy kindly care;
Through the scenes where God may call thee
Take our earnest, fervent prayer



























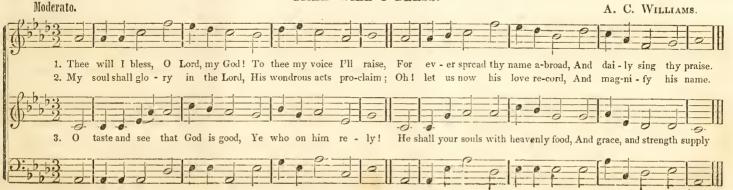








### THEE WILL I BLESS.











#### ASSEMBLED AT THE CLOSING HOUR.

- Oh, while we here our time employ,
   Permit us to improve
   In useful knowledge, and enjoy
   The tokens of thy love.
- In kindness, when we separate,
   Regard our tender prayer;
   And let us, when again we meet,
   A Father's blessing share.

#### COME, O MY SOUL!

- In all our Maker's grand designs,
   Omnipotence with wisdom shines;
   His works, through all this wondrous frame,
   Declare the glory of His name.
- Raised on Devotion's lofty wing,
   Do thou, my soul, His glories sing;
   And let his praise employ thy tongue,
   Till listening worlds shal goin the song





#### OUR FATHER, THOU WHO DWELLEST IN HEAVEN.

- 2. May we in friendship dwell united, May virtue every action guide; And when our schemes of joy are blighted, Put down each swelling thought of pride. Content in sorrow—joy we'll live, Since all is good that thou dost give.
- In wisdom and in skill increasing.
   As youth and vigor haste away,
   Our labor as our joy increasing,
   May we ne'er spend an idle day.
   And that we may the work prolong.
   Oh, make us diligent and strong.

#### HUMBLY AT THY FOOTSTOOL KNEELING.

2.

When the day of life is over,
May we dwell with thee above;
May we join with seraphs hymning
Praise to thee, thou God of love;
There with harps and angel voices,
May we swell a ceaseless song,
Ever happy, ever holy,
Thou ou: God, and heaven our home.









#### MY SHEPHERD WILL SUPPLY.

- 2. He brings my wandering spirit back, When I forsake his ways. And leads me, for his mercies' sake, In paths of truth and grace.
- 3. When I walk through the shades of death, Thy presence is my stay; One word of thy supporting breath Drives all my fears away.

#### SISTER, THOU WAST MILD AND LOVELY,

- 2. Peaceful be thy silent slumber, Peaceful in the grave so low: Thou no more wilt join our number. Thou no more our songs shalt know.
- 3. Dearest sister, thou hast left us. Here thy loss we deeply feel; But tis God that hath bereft us;
  He can still our sorrow heal.
- 4. Yet again we hope to meet thee, When the day of life is fled, Then, in heaven with joy to greet the Where no farewell tear is shed





#### IN SLEEP'S SERENE.

- 1. In sleep's serene oblivion laid, I safely passed the silent night; Again I see the breaking shade, I drink again the morning light.
- 2. O guide me through the various maze My doubtful feet are doomed to tread; And spread thy shield's protecting blaze, When dangers press around my head.

#### MY COUNTRY, 'TIS OF THEE.

- 1. My country, 'tis of thee, Sweet land of Liberty, Of thee I sing; Land where my fathers died, Land of the pilgrims' pride, From every mountain side, Let freedom ring!
- 2. My native country, thee, Land of the noble free,

Thy name I love, I love thy rocks and rills, Thy woods and templed hills, My heart with rapture thrills, Like that above.

3. Our fathers' God, to thee, Author of Liberty, To thee we sing ; Long may our land be bright With freedom's holy light! Protect us by thy might, Great God, our King.



CHANT NO. 2

CHANT NO. 3

9.07



(I will lift up mine eves unto the hills. From whence | cometh . . my | help.

My help cometh from the Lord. Which made | heaven .. and | earth.

He will not suffer thy foot to be moved: He that keepeth thee | will not | slumber.

Behold, he that keepeth Israel Shall not | slumber . nor | sleep.

The Lord is thy keeper: The Lord is thy shade upon thy | right- | hand.

The sun shall not smite thee by day.

Nor the | moon by | night.

The Lord shall preserve thee from all evil; He shall pre- | serve thy | soul.

The Lord shall preserve thy going out, and thy coming in.

From this time forth, and even for-ev-er | more.

#### THE LORD'S PRAYER.

Our Father who art in heaven, Hallowed be thy | name:

2 { Thy kingdom come, thy will be done On earth, as it is in | heaven.

3 Give us this day our daily | bread:

4 { And forgive us our trespasses, As we forgive them that trespass against | us.

5 And lead us not into temptation, But deliver us from | evil;

6 { For thine is the kingdom, and the power, And the glory for- | ever.

## "THY WILL BE DONE!"

"Thy will be | done!" | In devious way The hurrying stream of | life may | run ; | Yet still our grateful hearts shall say, | "Thy will be I done."

"Thy will be | done!" | If o'er us shine A gladdening and a | prosperous | sun, || This prayer will make it more divine— | "Thy will be I done."

"Thy will be | done !" | Though shrouded o'er Our [ path with | gloom, | one comfort-one Is ours :- to breathe, while we adore, | "Thy will be | done."

BOWRING

Close by repeating the first two measures-"Thy will be done."



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